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CONTENTS

The Elements of Geography and the Geographic Unit: J. RUSSELL SMITH 617

Suggestions for High-school Latin: JAMES H. DILLARD 629

Educational Events:

Honors Plan at Hobart College; The Massachusetts Survey of Higher Education; The New Jersey Composite Test; Growth of Public High Schools; "Rosenwald" Rural Schools in the South; The Superintendency of the Schools of Washington, D. C. 630

Educational Notes and News 633

Discussion:

Rechristening Normal Schools: WALTER W. PARKER 636

Quotations:

Education from the Inside 637

The Situation at Clark University 637

A Code of Ethics for Teachers: WILLIAM B. ASPINWALL 640

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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Volume XVII SATURDAY, JUNE 9, 1923 Number 441

THE ELEMENTS OF GEOGRAPHY AND THE GEOGRAPHIC UNIT

INTRODUCTION—THE PROBLEM

GEOGRAPHY may be defined as a study of the earth with especial reference to its influence on man. The study of geography should answer the question, "How does the earth influence man?" It has many ways of influencing him—land, water, air, heat, moisture, sunshine, location—each in turn or at times may claim that it is a dominant geographic influence and that man is its plaything.

If these geographic factors and also others which might be named are so very important it is plain they must be taught preparatory to or as a part of geographic instruction. This sounds like a large task. Indeed the number of these subjects is alarming and the total amount of information that has been collected on the whole of them is appalling if one thinks of teaching it to the child in the elementary school. It is at once easy to see how it happened that some of the geography books of the past were hopelessly waterlogged with facts, facts; facts without significance. It is true that the fundamental object of teaching geography is not to store the mind with facts nor yet to follow this lead or that lead as interest develops in some particular project. Nevertheless, the facts of geography must be taught. How shall we teach them? The answer is that they should be taught in such a way that they may be immediately put to work in solving questions that arise in our life.

This teaching of facts in relation to their use is a very, very different thing from merely teaching facts. Facts do not amount to much until they are used. For ages men have known the *fact* that boiling water created vapor or gas and that it would lift the lid of a kettle. For nearly two thousand years men have known that Hero made a little steam engine that spun round and round. But for 1800 years this fact was not used. Then came the use of this fact; the steam engine began to do work and behold, the world was made over and man's numbers nearly doubled in one of the almost numberless centuries of his career upon this planet.

The proper study of geography is then not merely a process of mental fact stuffing. It is a process of mental training by fact using. By this process the mind becomes stored with useful and usable knowledge. Grant our agreement on this *ideal of presentation* the proper *method of presentation* still remains a problem.

Which of the many geographic elements shall we use as the basis of classification in the creation of geographic units effective in elementary teaching? The answer to this question is the real crux of geographic organization.

Before attempting to answer this question let us take a brief survey of the material at hand, of the elements entering into the geographic environment. A survey of this material is one of the four natural parts of this essay.

PART ONE—THE ELEMENTS OF GEOGRAPHY

1. *Earth environment. Surface.* The character of the surface is an important factor in the geographic control of man. If we think for a moment of a steep mountain

side and then of a flat plain we instantly see that surface is often an absolute control of occupation. The social, racial and linguistic influence of surface are also often marked with great clearness. In America the long survival of colonial conditions in the isolated Appalachian communities is a mild counterpart of the sharply contrasted units that have been preserved or even differentiated in the separate valleys of the Alps, the Caucasus and many other mountains. Surface often decides man's status, occupation and numbers in a region.

Quebec gives a good example of the influence of *soil*. Two arms of the old Gulf of St. Lawrence were filled with sediments borne by glacial streams. To-day both are plains with level surfaces, but the soil of the two is radically different. One is an unsettled forest of none too good quality because the water-borne soil is coarse sand and gravel while the other is a garden-spot of well-tilled farms because the soil it received is a productive loam. In certain places in New England there are sections which the people call desert because the soil is composed of coarse glacial outwash sands that are so porous that water runs through as it does through a sieve. In such places most plants perish of thirst. Quite near to these "desert places" may be sandy loams, famous for truck; clay soil good for grass, or limestone soils famed for their excellence as producers of grain. The character of the soil often decides man's status, occupation and numbers in a region.

Climate is the average combined result of several factors each of which has great influence upon man. Temperature alone, other things being equal, decides whether a land is covered with an arctic ice cap thousands of feet high such as that of Greenland or with an equatorial jungle a hundred feet high. The occasional occurrence of frost in a land sweeps out a whole series of crops and permits another series to be introduced.

The number of the days when there is no frost decides whether a land grows cotton or corn. Temperature conditions often decide man's status, occupation and numbers in a region.

The amount of rainfall, granted certain temperatures, is often the deciding factor making desert land, pasture land, farm land or forest land.

A rainy winter and a dry summer such as come to California and Italy make lands of winter wheat, olives, fruits and dry summer pastures, but a rainy winter and a rainy summer make cotton, corn, sweet potatoes, peanuts, swamps and mosquitos, such as we find in China and in our own gulf states.

The regularity of rainfall in Illinois makes crop regularity and prosperity. Irregularity of rainfall in western Kansas has made crop failure and has driven out settlers by the hundred thousand. Still greater irregularities in China and India have made their recurring famines, littering the land with bleaching skeletons because there were not enough left living to bury the dead. Rainfall conditions often decide man's status, occupation and numbers in a region.

Winds blow so hard in the Falkland Islands that trees and crops can not grow. It is therefore a pasture land. In the West Indies and other trade wind lands the almost constant breezes blow from the sea and bring refreshing coolness to the eastern shores, thus making those sections vastly preferable to interior locations where the wind-blown mosquitos congregate to devour us in the stifling stillness of hot humidity. Thus wind sometimes decides man's race, status, occupation and numbers in a region.

Minerals. Gold is discovered! Quickly thousands of men gather. The permanence of the gold deposit decides whether the men will live in a tent town, a shanty town, or a town of brick and stone, with

wives, children, schools and libraries. But when the mineral is gone the bats may roost in the houses and the wolves may chase rabbits in the streets which once resounded with the sound of the human step and voice, as many a Rocky mountain town attests.

The discovery of oil in the flat and desolate prairie makes a town to spring up almost as quickly as grass grows with return of spring. Rich seams of coal are opened. Fed by their power, cities like Pittsburgh, Birmingham, Manchester, Glasgow and London rise. Because of rich seams of coal nations have risen to world mastery. Without it they sink relatively, as Italy has sunk, to third rate position. Minerals often decide man's status, occupation and numbers in a region.

Oceans, seas, lakes and *rivers* may determine the lives and occupation of men. The ocean develops fishing communities and trading communities. The tempering influence of an oceanic climate is so well known that it is clear that the distance of a region from the ocean often decides man's status, occupations and numbers.

The influence of rivers as highways and sources of waterpower are equally potent and so well known as not to require presentation here.

2. *Organic environment.* The above mentioned elements of the earth environment combine to make life conditions for the plants and animals—the organic environment. In a sense we are the slaves of our organic environment, for one part of it, plant life, is the ultimate source of food supply for every animal upon the earth.

In those parts of Africa where the deadly tsetse fly annihilates every one of our beasts of burden we see man carrying his burdens on his head and fighting the forest and growing his crops by hand labor. It thus becomes plain that the natural plant life and animal life may decide the status, occupation and numbers of men in a region.

3. *Economic environment.* These above mentioned geographic factors combine in various ways to aid, to check, to spread, to contract man's economic activities—his industries and trade.

We can not consider industries without thinking of *location.* Location is a factor which influences man's use of his resources. Location combines with each of the above mentioned geographic factors to influence every industry. The location of one resource with regard to others and to markets decides the cost factors of transport or decides whether or no it is possible to transport at all. Thus sandy lands near large cities are often market gardens while remote areas of similar sandy land may be only pine forest.

Vast stretches of fine potato land in western Canada and western United States are not in potatoes at all because there is no market while poorer potato lands in northwest Europe, near to hundreds of millions of people, produce billions of bushels of potatoes per year. The forests of central Siberia, unmarketable at present, know not the sound of the axe, while nearly all the forests of Maine and Minnesota have long since floated down their rivers to the saw mills.

Trade, like industry, is greatly influenced by location. Thus New York has outgrown all other North American Atlantic ports combined because a break in the Appalachian highlands gave superior access to the trade of the interior of the continent, rich in resources and peopled by millions of energetic men. Other harbors, not far away on the coasts of Maine and Virginia, equally good or better as ship shelters, are unused save for the occasional visits of fishing or pleasure craft.

4. *Social environment.* The race, language, religion, culture, government and density of population of a people are important factors. A highly interesting phase of historical and social study is just in its

beginning. It is the study of man to see how he has come to differ so in respect to race, language, religion, culture, government and density of population. While we await the digging out of these interesting explanations the fact remains that we must deal with them as existing influences or factors in to-day's interpretation of man's status, occupation and numbers in a region. Thus in the Malay Peninsula the Chinese diligently dig the world's tin and grow its rubber for a very modest wage while the Malay sits idly by. It is impossible to tempt him by any wage. He makes his wife do all the work he needs. Here we see that *race* may greatly influence man's status, occupation and numbers in a region.

Language may be a factor of importance. When a few isolated people such as the Gaels of the Hebrides Islands, west of Scotland, have a language that is not used by others, the people are kept out of communication with the great stream of knowledge and science.

When one compares the highly efficient and constructively helpful *governments* of Denmark, Switzerland or Canada with the brigandage of Manchuria, the oppression and rapacity of Turkey, the graft and despotic imprisonments of Venezuela, one sees that government may have much to do with man's status, occupation and numbers in a region.

Density of population alone decides whether a man is a garden farmer tilling the earth with a hoe as in Japan or a cowboy riding with his flocks as in Argentina.

The above references to the elements of geography are not a survey of the field, rather a mere glimpse of the high spots to show that there is a field. In the classified bibliography at the end of this article there is a more systematic attempt to show the vast field covered by the elements of geography necessary to the undestanding of man making his living and his home upon the earth.

PART TWO—THE METHODS OF PRESENTATION

Carefully examine any current elementary text and you will see that use is made of information drawn from nearly or quite all of the many above mentioned elements of geography. And it must be so. Herein lies the explanation of the charge so often made that the books are overloaded. How shall this complex be woven into a whole? Two methods have been tried.

1. The logical. 2. The psychological. It is more descriptive to call the logical the *systematic foundation method*, the *method of getting all the facts first*. Similarly the psychological can better be called *the applied-science method;* the method of using your facts as you get them rather than trying to store them until you want to apply them. Examine the text books and you will find examples of each of these methods.

Logical. The systematic foundation method is of German origin; it is thorough and it is logical. But the method violates juvenile psychology and hence does not work well. This system says in effect—since all these elements must be used we will teach the elements first, then with the elements in mind it will be easy to understand countries and geographic problems. Accordingly the books using this method begin with chapters on soil, surface, wind, rain, industries, trade, etc. Perfectly logical—but children's minds do not work that way as the newest pedagogical knowledge now attests.

The value of the psychological method and the difficulties of the logical method are embodied in the answer of a young teacher when I asked, "How do you get along with these first 58 pages of general chapters?" "Oh," said she, "it is awful; it just keeps me hunting through the rest of the book all the time to find things to *illustrate* and *correlate* with it."

Psychological—The psychological or applied science method is in accord with juvenile psychology. It brings in the

elements one at a time and at points where the scientific facts *can immediately help explain some particular country or situation.* The young teacher above mentioned was trying to do this when she instinctively applied her elements of geography to the countries of the earth even though she was really rearranging the book in so doing. Indeed she knew better than her author how to *plan* a book.

The real point is that most of the facts or elements of geography can be little more than abstractions until they have been shown to have a meaning in a region or a situation where they explain something. This the young teacher did. I commend and try to follow her example. The psychological or applied science method shifts the emphasis from *acquiring* facts to using facts in explaining matters that concern the individual, the human being. This method is in accord with Dewey's "Child and curriculum." His main point is that all these things in school are nothing more or less than the experience the human race has had. They can not be planted into the child like vaccination nor can they be taught in the so-called logical order. The pupil must somehow be made to live through the experiences and to develop them. Try as we may we can not just hand them to him as we can hand him a hat. *He must experience.*

The appeal to experience, real or imagined, is characteristic of all good teaching. For example, how shall we give the child some idea of that most difficult of human enterprises—government? It is possible to get this abstract concept into a child's mind by describing the government of some particular country or group of people, but experience has proved that it is utterly impossible to develop a concept of government by having children of ten or twelve years of age read a little essay on government. It has been well said that we can see no farther into a generalization than we have in our own minds specific examples with which to illustrate it.

The psychological method is not a new philosophy. It was used in the Bible and by most of the great teachers of all ages. Furthermore, for several years past the geographies most widely used in American colleges and high schools have been based on the applied science rather than on the systematic foundation method.

If a method of simplification has succeeded in the colleges and in the high schools it certainly seems to need no argument to show that at least as much simplification is necessary in the elementary school.

In briefest form these competing methods might be contrasted thus. Shall we teach all the principles of geography first or shall we teach them as they are needed? The great attraction of the project problem method which has received so much attention in elementary education in America lies in the fact that it embodies many of the features of the applied science method and avoids the old dry systematic science method.

This applied science method is *the* way to teach cause and effect. You do it by stating the cause and the effect together so that the relationship can not be missed. You can not teach the relationship of cause and effect by the foundation-first method which often presents the effect the semester after or the year after the cause has been taught (and usually forgotten).

This applied science method—this cause and effect method harmonizes with the memory process. Definite measured tests have shown that children remember things that are told in association with other related facts much more easily than they remember things that stand alone. The multiplication table was so devastating to most of us because it called for mere bare memory. We could not even reduce it to doggerel verse such as a past generation

used to make easier the memorization of capitals and other place geography.

The applied science method further aids teaching and aids memory because it meets that first demand of the live mind, "Tell me why." This method is one series of explanations that answer the question "why." That makes it interesting.

PART THREE—THE UNIT OF PRESENTATION

The geography teacher and the geography book have the task of acquainting the child with the human relationships that depend upon the earth. This involves acquainting the child not alone with his local environment but with the *world* and its peoples. What shall we use for the unit of presentation?

We can not say very much that is universally true about *all people* or the *whole earth*. We *must* use smaller units. What shall they be? This is a comparatively new question which becomes every day more pressing. When geography was mere question and answer—fact unexplained, it made little difference what unit was used, so geography books used states or nations. But geography is now with increasing rapidity becoming a study of cause and effect. If we are talking about a place where the wheat crop is the dominant influence the area over which this crop has this influence has for that moment at least become our unit or region.

In choosing pieces of the earth to talk about there are two main classes of units now in use: (1) political units; (2) regional units.

Political units—The political unit is steadily losing virtue with the scientific advance of geography. As long as the geography text book taught only questions and answers, mere facts rather than cause and effect, the political unit was good. Countries, states and groups were excellent units because they really were not used except for mere location.

The state unit becomes increasingly bad when *ideas* enter and *cause and effect* are sought. What can you say about California—*about all of California*, or about all of New York or all of Pennsylvania or of Ohio or of any other of our states? A moment's thought on the simple facts of California geography brings the realization that this great state has:

a. A southeastern desert with the great oasis of the Imperial Valley irrigation.

b. A southern valley—the Los Angeles-San Bernardino Valley, a wonderful region of intensive agriculture and delightful residence.

c. A central valley—the Great Valley of California (San Joaquin-Sacramento) one of the garden spots of the world.

d. A forested mountain region surrounding the Great Valley and also occupying the northern part of the state.

There is almost nothing to say about *all* of California, for its various parts have little in common except a state government (which is of chief concern to political science). There is much to be said about each of the four regions which by their unity force us to talk about them if we would understand the state and its resources as the home of man.

It seems plain that regional units rather than political units are the effective ones for Pacific coast geography.

Regional geography divides California into several units and two of these units, the southeastern desert and the mountains, reach far beyond California and include parts of other states. To finish the discussion of these regions which are partly in California causes us to describe parts of other states also. By this process regional geography often throws several states or parts of states into one unit, thereby making for great economy of time. In describing the conditions and the results of the conditions that make Georgia a cotton

state we are also describing her neighbors, South Carolina and Alabama and also North Carolina and Mississippi and the rest of the Cotton Belt. Take the Cotton Belt as a unit and you have assembled parts of a dozen states into one working unit. One description suffices when a dozen would have been required if we had been using the single states as units.

Using a group of states as a unit is usually worse than to use a single state. Some authors attempt to use the so-called South Atlantic States as a unit. This group now includes West Virginia, Maryland, Delaware and coast states to and including Florida. In February, the West Virginia boys are coasting and skating, and their fathers are harvesting ice while people in Florida are bathing in the warm ocean, picking oranges from the trees and gazing upon the beautiful palms—symbol of the tropics. It is as difficult to say anything about *all* of this group of states as it is to say anything about all of California and as a matter of fact *this grouping of states is without geographic meaning*. Therefore it has no importance for a geography text. It depends upon the whim of a statistician in the bureau of the census at Washington. Forty-eight states seemed too many for the statistician to handle in bulk so he did them up in bunches very much as the gardener does his beets. He recently threw Delaware and Maryland out of the Middle Atlantic States and he might just as well have given us a string of states going from Delaware to Kansas as from Delaware to Florida.

If one does attempt to present his geography with the South Atlantic states as a unit he must talk about cotton, which is the dominant crop and economic interest in the central part of this territory. Then when he takes up the adjacent census group of states, the South Central, there is cotton again; equally important. In which place shall he describe the cotton industry? Space and common sense alike forbid his doing it fully in both places. Since cotton is the dominant interest and support of the people, why not make the Cotton Belt the regional unit? It has simplicity in presentation because it has unity. It has more unity than any *group of states* as given by the census.

Unity is the first essential of anything about which we try to talk. Therefore, the political unit (which is good for political science) is bad for the geography that must explain as well as state the facts of men making a living.

The regional unit is already in use. For decades business men have been talking and thinking in regional terms—"Corn Belt," "Cotton Belt," "Lake District," "Great Valley," etc. For years the writers of pedagogy and the makers of courses of study in geography have been emphasizing the need of regional treatment even while following the traditional method of so-called political geography.

Method of bounding units—Plainly the modern way is to teach geography by regions. How shall we make our regions? In looking over the list of elements reviewed in the first part of this article we at once see that one could make as many kinds of regions as there are geographic elements. For example, surface regions—mountains, plains, plateaus; or soil regions—sandy, clay, rich soil, poor soil; rainfall regions—heavy, light, winter or summer rain; temperature regions—cold, hot, long summer, medium summer, short summer; natural vegetation regions—forests, grasslands, deserts; crop regions—corn, wheat, cotton; occupation regions—commercial, manufacturing, farming; population regions—race, religion, dense population, scanty population; governmental regions—republics, empires, kingdoms.

The correct description of a region or series of regions is likely to cause the writer to think for a time in terms of any or all of these possible ways of making regions

and if the person had spent twenty years working as a geologist or physiographer he would instinctively lean toward physiographic regions. Years of work in the soil survey would probably incline the author to soil regions, while years of work in the weather bureau would give a leaning toward rainfall or temperature regions.

Must we always use one and the same element only? If so, which one should we use to make our regions? We are interested in these regions from the standpoint of *human use*. That fact becomes dominant.

We must classify according to the element of predominating importance to man.

In classifying the parts of the earth's surface for modern school geography it is *human use* that is the prime consideration and therefore we should use that one of the many geographic elements which really dominates human use. In the Rocky Mountains it is *surface* and we properly use a physiographic term—mountain region. But take the far reaching plain that extends without a break from the warm Gulf of Mexico at the mouth of the Mississippi to the ice dotted arctic ocean at the mouth of the MacKenzie River. It is *one* plain, but it is at least five regions because of difference in climate. Near the gulf is a long, warm, moist summer—a cotton belt; to the north the summer, still warm and moist, is too short for cotton but long enough for corn—corn belt. Still farther north the summers get shorter and less warm—a spring wheat belt. The spring wheat belt is limited on the north by a shorter, cooler, frostier summer that permits the growth of spruce, aspen and other northern trees. This is another region, the great north woods, which in turn gives way to the fifth region of this one great plain—the tundra, having a summer too short and cool for trees but producing that amazing growth of grass, moss, herbs and mosquitos which make it the land of the reindeer and waterfowl.

We have thus shown regions separated from their neighbors by surface differences and by climatic differences. But look at the land near the mouth of the Hudson River. There in a short radius are over seven million people. Has this place drawn this amazing mass of people because it differs from neighboring rivermouths or bays in surface or climate or soil or temperature or rainfall or face of inhabitants? Not at all. *It differs in location.* Its location with regard to the Hudson-Mohawk highway into the interior of North America gives superior access to large and fertile territories filled with energetic people whose trade has focussed at the mouth of the Hudson and made this a region of trade, cities and manufacture.

By picking out the *dominating geographic characteristic* of each part of the earth where we find some unity in human use we can divide the earth's surface into regions. The study of geography based upon this method of division will be easier and more effective than if we followed any uniform classification such as government units, physiographic units, soil units, climate units, or racial units.[1]

PART FOUR—BOOKS AND MAPS USEFUL IN A SURVEY OF THE ELEMENTS OF GEOGRAPHY

Part One—The Earth Environment

A. Surface or topography:

Books: [2]Salisbury, R. D., Physiology, 770 pages, Holt, $4.00. Four hundred and seventy-three pages of this with many pictures and maps describe and explain surface forms.

Tarr and Martin, College Physiography, 837

[1] This philosophy is not new as a piece of philosophy. In essence it is the same as that expounded by J. F. Unstead, of England, in the *Geographic Journal* (London) in 1916 and previously used by him in his book *General and Regional Geography*, Philip, London, 1911.

[2] Part of geography teachers' best for $10 book shelf. This should also include price lists of government publications (free), Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Many state governments have similar lists.

pages, Macmillan, $4.50. Another college text of similar size and merit.

Salisbury, Barrows and Tower, Elements of Geography, 616 pages, Holt, $1.50. Adds to the physiography a brief discussion of influence of physiographic factors. Because brief its physiography is harder to understand than the longer presentations mentioned above.

Gregory, Keller and Bishop, Physical and Commercial Geography (for college), 469 pages, Ginn, $3.00. A very good brief physiography in 91 pages.

Whitbeck, R., The High School Geography, 577 pages, Macmillan, $2.00, (for high school) is the newest statement of physiography.

Maps: U. S. Geological Survey—Several hundred maps showing detailed surface features of small sections of the United States. Special sets selected to show physiographic or surface types. Relief maps of United States, several sizes, showing character of surface in colors. Write for list.

Commercial map publishers: Denoyer, Geppert, Chicago; Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago—colored relief maps showing elevation and some surface features by color and hachure (short lines).

Surface features skillfully shown in black and white by A. K. Lobeck. Physiographic Diagram United States and Europe, A. J. Nystrom & Co., Chicago.

B. Soil:

Books: Hilgard, E. W., Soils, 593 pages, Macmillan, $5.00—a standard and famous treatise.

Bowman, I., Forest Physiography, 759 pages, Wiley, $5.00. First 106 pages an excellent shorter treatise.

Maps: U. S., Soil Regions of—Yearbook U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1921.

U. S., Sections of—Minutely detailed, large scale soil maps of many small sections of the United States—see soil surveys, Bureau Soils, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Every class should see one or more.

C. Minerals:

Books: U. S. Geological Survey text of Atlas of Commercial Geology (see below).

Spurr, J. E., Economic Geology, McGraw-Hill, $5.00, 562 pages—location of deposits and industry.

Ries, H., Economic Geology, 856 pages, Macmillan, $4.00—the formation of mineral deposits.

Maps: U. S. Geological Survey.

[3] Atlas of Commercial Geology, Part I, $2.00—72 maps of continents, countries and states showing both location and amount of production of 29 different minerals. Another part showing of reserves of minerals is in preparation.

U. S. coal fields, oil fields and pipe lines, single map, wall size.

U. S. Coal Fields—[2]Goode, J. P., School Atlas, Rand, McNally, $1.50. This atlas is undoubtedly the best of its kind published in the United States.

D. Climate:

Books: Every book mentioned under Topography has a section proportionately long dealing with the atmosphere.

Ward, R. D., Climate, 380 pages, $2.50, Putnam—standard descriptions of kinds of climate.

Kendrew, W. G., Climate of the Continents, 387 pages, Oxford Press, $7.00—a source book for climatic data for typical places.

Davis, W. M., Elementary Meteorology, 355 pages, Ginn, $2.50—standard college text on the qualities and behavior of the atmosphere.

Maps: Herbertson, A. J., The Senior Geography, 363 pages, Oxford Press, $1.70, has map of climatic regions of world.

[2] Jones and Whittlesey, Types of Climate, 17 pages, 25 cents, University of Chicago Press. A similar more recent and more detailed map of climatic regions, very suggestive.

1. *Temperature:*

Maps: a. Annual Averages, World, Salisbury, Borrows and Tower (above).

b. Winter Month Averages

c. Summer Month Averages.

All continents and world—Goode, J. P., School Atlas (above).

Philips Comparative Wall Atlas, Denoyer-Geppert, Chicago. Best set of wall maps for classroom use.

d. Monthly Averages, World, United States and Southern Canada and India—Bartholomew's Atlas of Meteorology, Archibald Constable & Co., London, $17.00, 40 large pages—a great collection of maps.

e. Momentary temperature. At 8 A.M. each day, Washington time, for U. S. see daily weather map, U. S. Weather Bureau. All children studying weather should see some.

f. Vast collection U. S. temperature data and maps, Bulletin Q, U. S. Weather Bureau. Not for sale, libraries only.

g. Length of growing season and much other frost data,[3] Atlas of American Agriculture, Part II, Climate, Section I, Frost and the Growing Season, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Inexpensive. Invaluable for both teacher and class.

[3] Part of the teacher's second list of books. Cost, $13.00.

h. Hottest and coldest months, difference between averages of hottest and coldest months, wall maps, Philips Comparative Wall Atlas (see above). Very valuable for teaching purposes.

2. *Sunshine and Clouds:*

Books: See Climate (above).

Map: Percentage of possible, World, United States, India, Australia, Cape Colony, annual and by months—Bartholomew Atlas of Meteorology (above).

3. *Winds:*

Books: See Climate (above).

Maps: a. Prevalent direction in winter.

b. Prevalent direction in summer.

Wall maps all continents—Philips Comparative Wall Atlas.

(Such maps are of questionable value because of the uncertain amount of time that wind is not in the prevalent direction).

c. Percentage of time wind blows from various directions by months over the oceans. Three foot maps. Inexpensive. Hydrographic Office, U. S. Navy Department. Prepared for navigation. The accuracy of these makes them very valuable.

d. Momentary direction at 8 A.M., daily, U. S. Weather Map. Similar weather maps are published for Europe, Japan, Australia, Argentina (see U. S. Weather Bureau libraries).

4. *Humidity:*

Books: Books on climate for facts of humidity.

Huntington, E., Civilization and Climate. 333 pages, Yale University Press, $2.50—for influence of humidity on man. This is a famous treatise.

The essence of its philosophy is also to be found in [3]Huntington and Cushing, Principles of Human Geography, 430 pages, John Wiley & Sons, $3.00—a prominent text.

Maps: Humidity in U. S., [3]Atlas of American Agriculture, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Part II, Section A, Precipitation and Humidity. Many fine maps on humidity and rainfall. Very valuable.

5. *Rainfall:*

a. Amount and seasonal distribution.

Books: See Climate.

Kendrew, Climate of the Continents (above) for monthly rainfall figures for many places.

U. S. Weather Bureau, Bulletins on Climatic Data give monthly rainfall for many small towns in United States. Valuable for local studies.

Maps: All continents, winter rain, summer rain—

Philips Wall Atlas ((above).

Goode's School Atlas ((above).

U. S. great detail, annual and seasonal—Atlas of American Agriculture (see Humidity, above).

b. Weekly Rainfall:

Weather, Crops and Markets, issued weekly, U. S. Weather Bureau, Washington.

c. Regularity—Not sufficiently appreciated, studied or presented.

Maps: Miami Conservancy District, Dayton, Ohio, Technical Reports, part 5, Storm rainfall of Eastern United States. Some wonderful maps of frequency of certain kinds of rainfall and records of particular storms prepared as guide to flood control works at Dayton.

A map of drought frequency in United States reproduced in Smith, J. R., World's Food Resources, 634 pages, $3.50, Holt.

7. *Snowfall:*

Books: See Climate.

Maps: Average depth of snow for Canada—Atlas of Canada, Dept. Interior, Ottawa. A book rich in geography.

U. S.—Atlas of American Agriculture (see humidity.

Depth of snow on ground in U. S. by weeks—U. S. Snow and Ice Bulletin issued Tuesdays in winter, U. S. Weather Bureau.

E. Oceans, Seas, Lakes, Rivers:

Books: Chapters on all four subjects in all the physiographies mentioned above (see Surface).

Murray, Sir John, The Ocean, 256 pages, Home University Library. Excellent short treatise by a great authority covering all important phases.

Maps: Goode, School Atlas (above), Ocean Currents.

F. Waterpower:

Books: U. S. Geological Survey, [3]World Atlas of Commercial Geology, Part II (above).

Waterpower of the World. Location and character of resources, all continents. This is a book full of surprises.

Van Hise, C. R., Conservation of Natural Resources in U. S., 413 pages, Macmillan, $2.50.

Waterpower Resources and Control, 44 pages.

Smith, J. R., Commercial and Industrial Geography, 976 pages, Holt, $4.50. Waterpower Economics, 10 pages.

U. S. Geological Survey, bushels of reports describe water and waterpower resources of par-

ticular sections of the United States in great detail. Reference only or local studies. Valuable for home geography.

Maps: See books above (Atlas).

U. S. Geological Survey, U. S., waterpower per square mile in each state. Small map. Free. Suggestive.

Part Two—The Organic Environment.

A. Plant Life:

Books: Hardy, M. E., The Geography of Plants, 327 pages, Oxford University Press, 4 shillings. Excellent description of plants of particular regions.

Maps: Goode, School Atlas (above)—Vegetation map of world is good; continent maps in this book to be avoided because of confusion woodland, grass and cultivation on one map.

The weak point mentioned above is absent from Philips Wall Atlas (above). These wonderful natural vegetation wall maps of continents are excellent.

The map of natural vegetation is one showing much geography and is one of the great elements of geography and great aids to teaching regions.

Harshberger, Rand, McNally & Co., Vegetation Wall Map of North America is on larger scale than Philips series and showing finer subdivisions.

B. Animal Life:

Books: Newbigin, M. I., Animal Geography, 327 pages, Oxford University Press, 4 shillings. A convenient treatise by an excellent author.

Maps: Scobels Handels Atlas Zur Verkehrs und Wirtschafts geographie (a standard German schoolbook, cost $1.10), contains six maps of the world giving bounds of area inhabited by 55 animals, including polar bear, crocodile, bird of paradise and the "Amerikanishe stink animal" (skunk). Then follow four maps of the world doing the same for 24 domestic animals, including the honey-bee, house cat and hen, and one map showing 11 fishes.

For farm animals see Finch and Baker, below (Agriculture).

Part Three—Economic Environment.

A. Industries:

Books: The number of important industries is so great and there have been so many special volumes written on almost all of that there is no attempt to list them here.

1. *General treatises covering leading industries.*

Chisholm, G. C., Handbook of Commercial Geography, Longmans Green, $4.50, 824 pages; very rich in accurate facts, a reference book.

[2]Smith, J. R., Commercial and Industrial Geography (above); somewhat more philosophical than Chisholm; a text-book.

2. *Agriculture.*

See Chisholm and Smith above. [3] The food industries are more fully treated in Smith, J. R., World's Food Resources (above).

[2] United States Department of Agriculture year book. Free from your congressman. Yearly production figures.

[2] Finch and Baker, Atlas of world's agriculture, U. S. Department of Agriculture, $1.00. Excellent brief text with invaluable maps. Can not be too highly recommended. The greatest single contribution made to economic geography in many years.

Freeman and Chandler, The World's Commercial Products (of plant origin only); more of technical agriculture and less of geography than the Chisholm and Smith Beautifully illustrated.

Maps: The incomparably valuable dot maps used in Finch and Baker are a great improvement over the mere bounds maps, such as Scobel (above). This great boon to geographers shows range and density of production of important crops or agricultural factors as follows: World, 18 maps; Europe, 27 maps; United States, 63 maps. Many of these have been used as basis of wall maps, A. J. Nystrom Company, Chicago.

[3] Maps for United States brought down to 1920 census in Yearbook, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1921. Separate, No. 878.

B. Lumbering.

For short accounts, see Chisholm, Smith, Freeman and Chandler (above).

Maps: Of forest area of North America in various publications of Bureau of Forestry reproduced in many texts, as Forest Physiography, I. Bowman (above).

Wall maps Natural Vegetation all continents, Philips (above).

C. Mining.

Books: U. S. G. S., Mineral Resources of United States. These two heavy volumes give an account of the progress of each mineral industry during the year covered. Usually about two years behind. Some of the separate reports can be secured much sooner. Authoritative source.

The Mineral Industry, McGraw Hill Company, gives similar excellent information for foreign countries by industries and countries. Authoritative source.

Maps: See Minerals above.

D. Fisheries.

Books: Howell, E. V. L., Ocean Research and the Great Fisheries, 220 pages, Oxford University Press, $6.00.

Maps: Europe, Scobel (above), location of species.

North America, Scobel (above), location of species.

E. Manufacture.

Books: Many books on the various industries. U. S. census reports a good place to begin.

Short treatments—Chisholm and Smith above.

Keir, R. M., The Manufacturing Industries in America, 324 pages, Ronald Press, $3.00. Separate chapters on leading industries.

Maps: Mapping difficult. Past attempts very unsatisfactory. Among the best for Europe see Scobel (above), locations of industries and the occupations of the people.

Map of Manufacturing Regions in Principles of Human Geography, Huntington and Cushing.

U. S. centers of manufacture, Goode's School Atlas.

F. Trade.

Books: Brief discussion, Smith and Chisholm (above).

Maps: World areas, with much, little and no trade; Bartholomew's Comparative Atlas, Meiklejohn and Son, London, 4s. 6d.

World, values of trade on ocean routes by width of line; wall maps; Philips (above). World, steamer tracks and distances, Goode's School Atlas (above).

World, actual location of leading ocean routes, Industrial and Commercial Geography, Smith.

Railway net map, United States, Goode.

Navigable river and canal maps, Scobel (above).

Part Four—Social Environment

I. Races and their distribution.

Books: Deniker, Joseph, The Races of Man, 250 pages, Scribner, $2.50; a very satisfactory short survey of the whole field.

Dixon, Racial History of Man, 583 pages, Scribner, $6.00; an excellent book on whole field.

Ripley, W. Z., Races of Europe, 624 pages, Appleton, $6.50; a very authoritative book on limited field.

Maps: World, Bartholomew's Comparative Atlas (above).

Philips' Senior School Atlas, Philip and Sons, London (said by some to be best school atlas in English).

II. Language.

Books: Dominion, L., Frontiers of Language and Nationality in Europe, 400 pages, American Geographical Society, New York; an excellent book out of print, see libraries

III. Religions.

Maps: See Races above.

IV. Culture, efficiency, customs, etc.

Books and Maps: Huntington, E., Climate and Civilization (above) explains civilization and has maps showing degrees of civilization in the various parts of the world.

V. Government—political geography.

Books: [3]The New World, I. Bowman, World Book Company, Yonkers, may properly be called the first political geography in America. It has many maps showing geographic origin and aspects of governmental problems. This book is a great contribution, being in a field that has not been covered by any treatise.

Statesman's Yearbook, Macmillan. $7.00. Invaluable source for the actual facts and forms of organization of government of almost every bit of land that has government and name.

VI. Density of Population—a factor insufficiently appreciated.

Books: Brief discussion, chapter on Law of Trade, Smith, Commercial and Industrial Geography (above).

Concluding chapters Smith, World's Food Resources (above).

Some economic results of, in China, King. Farmers of Forty Centuries, 400 pages, $2.50, Mrs. F. H. King, Madison, Wisconsin. This is a great source book for oriental agriculture and economic conditions.

Maps: All continents, Goode's School Atlas (above).

Philip's Wall Atlas (above).

[3] U. S. Rural, Atlas of American Agriculture, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Part IX, Rural Population.

In Conclusion—Semple, E. C. Influences of Geographic Environment. 683 pages. $3.50 Holt. This book is probably our nearest approach to a geographic classic. It discusses the influences of environment on man's thought, institutions, religion and history, as well as his material activities. It is quite as valuable to the teacher of history as to the teacher of geography.

J. RUSSELL SMITH

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

SUGGESTIONS FOR HIGH SCHOOL LATIN[1]

IT seems to me that certain critics are right in asking that the results of the teaching of Latin in high schools should be better than at present. So far as I have been able to observe, there are few students who after four years of Latin in our high schools have readiness in reading the language or appreciation of the literature, or have received the training in accuracy which the study ought to give.

Before real improvement can be attained it is my belief that three abolitions are needed:

1. The requirements of four books of Caesar, six or seven orations of Cicero and six books of Vergil should be abolished. There should be more of easier Latin and for the sake of thorough study less of the three classics.

2. The idea that good Latin was written only during a period of about 150 years must be absolutely discarded. It is as absurd as to claim that good English has been written only in some limited period.

3. The present generation of beginners' books must be avoided. Their fundamental program is wrong in that it emphasizes from the first not the language but the grammar.

The following four propositions which I venture to offer are based on principles rather than on definite methods. Within these principles there should be full freedom for the teacher to use individual variations as to special methods. The four propositions I would urge are these:

1. Let the pupils see connected Latin from the first day; for example, a fable of Aesop, or some verses from the Latin Bible. Tell the meaning of the words and have the pupils read the Latin over and over. Better still let the pupils get the Latin by heart. This will fix the vocabulary and the pronunciation. Go through many fables and many chapters in this way. Matthew Arnold recommended the Latin Bible as a good text for beginners.

2. After weeks or months of such exercise the pupils will see for themselves the need and the good of learning the declensions and the conjugations, and by all means let them learn these thoroughly and together, not by piecemeal as in most beginners' books.

3. Let the reading of easy Latin continue for at least two years and then it will be found that such writers as Caesar, Cicero and Vergil can be read with far more understanding and satisfaction.

4. Postpone as long as possible the study of syntax and the turning of English into Latin, except as such study or exercise may be wisely and incidentally interjected. Simple constructions of sentences will be naturally noticed in the reading, especially if the plan of constant repetition and learning by heart be persisted in. If the teachers will devote two years to the language they will find that the study of the grammar will be more intelligent. As it now is the pupils do not begin the study as an approach to learning the language as such. From the first they are led to think of the language merely as an exercise in grammar. Far better for learning both the language and the grammar to emphasize the language first and then the grammar.

I venture to make another proposition and would carry the war into the enemy's country if necessary. The study of Latin should begin at least a year earlier than at present. Young children learn language more readily than older people, and by beginning with the emphasis on the language itself rather than on the grammar there is no reason why the study should not be begun at an earlier age than at present. Under our present system of grading there might be difficulty in providing for this change, but the benefit would be great. If Latin is to be studied at all five years would be far better than four.

Whether there be five years or four we must face the fact that Latin teaching must be made worthy of its place in the course of study. We know that some are raising the question whether present results justify the time allowed and I suppose that most of us who uphold the study are ourselves not satisfied. Hence the need of at least considering whether there be not ways of improvement. Let us hope that good suggestions will come from the investigation and report of the National Committee which is now at work.

It would be a sad day for education in this country if Latin were discarded from the

[1] Outline of address at meeting of Southern Section of the Classical Association of the South and Middle West, Birmingham, April 13, 1923.

schools. The loss would be calamitous both in regard to its service as an introduction to language, literature and culture and in regard to its wonderful adaptability for training in accuracy of thought and speech. Lastly I should say that Latin is especially needed, just now, as an outstanding protest against the overstressing of so-called vocational education and as a token of the idea that a rounded education should precede specialization.

JAMES H. DILLARD

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

HONORS PLAN AT HOBART COLLEGE

HOBART COLLEGE, Geneva, N. Y., is the latest institution to announce "honors courses."

Henceforth students at Hobart having exceptional mentality, initiative and qualifications for leadership will be given a wide range of freedom in their studies and upon passing satisfactory comprehensive examinations in the fields of study which they select will be given a special honor degree. As outlined by President Bartlett, the plan is as follows.

The conditions of admission to candidacy for this course shall be:

(1) The completion of the freshman and sophomore years under the ordinary conditions with an exceptionally high grade. During these years the hour and credit system is to be followed, but as far as possible, the more capable men will be placed in sections by themselves.

(2) Careful consideration by the heads of departments of the personal characteristics of each applicant, with the object of choosing not merely men who receive high grades, but men who are fitted in other ways for leadership.

When admitted to candidacy the student, with the approval of the heads of departments in his chosen field, for example, languages, natural sciences or the history-economics-philosophy group, shall select a course of study equivalent to three years of ordinary college work. These courses will be approved by the full committee of heads of departments in order to insure sufficient breadth of study. The student then, so far as his advisers approve, shall be freed from all restrictions as to hours and credits, attendance at classroom exercises and ordinary examinations. At stated times he shall meet his professors in intimate, personal conference, but his entire work will be under their supervision.

At the end of the two years a comprehensive and general examination will be given the student covering the entire field of his study. If this is successfully passed it is proposed that he be given a special honor bachelor's degree, with a definite statement on the diploma that he has completed the equivalent of five years of college work with an official certificate stating the character and amount of the work completed during the last two years. His diploma will also state that he is prepared for taking up advanced research work which will lead to the doctor's degree.

THE MASSACHUSETTS SURVEY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

ARE there sufficient colleges and universities in Massachusetts to care adequately for all the graduates of high schools in the state who are able and anxious to continue their education? If not, what further facilities are needed and how are they to be provided? These are the questions which the special commission on technical and higher education appointed by the governor of Massachusetts last summer was asked to consider and solve.

A preliminary answer to the questions as prepared by George F. Zook, of the United States Bureau of Education, who served as director of the survey, is given in the May issue of *School Life*. The survey found, among other things, that Massachusetts stands only twenty-first in the union in the proportion of its population from nineteen to twenty-three years of age which is in college. It is assumed in the report that the large foreign population has considerable influence on the proportion of young people who go to college. Some of the school superintendents and high school principals pointed out, however, that the nature of the college entrance requirements and the high rates of tuition also effect the situation.

The survey commission had been directed to consider two methods of supplementing the present provisions for technical and higher education in the commonwealth; namely, "the establishment of a state university, or further cooperation with existing institutions."

Finding that state scholarships are apparently unconstitutional, the commission has examined other possibilities, including a state university. On this point the report says:

Uppermost in the discussion of this suggestion has been the cost of such a state university. A careful analysis was made on the basis of a state university enrolling 4,000 students distributed as follows: (1) Arts and science, 1,250; (2) engineering, 600; (3) medicine, 300; (4) law, 250; (5) pharmacy, 150; (6) dentistry, 150; (7) commerce and business, 500; (8) education, 600; (9) graduate school, 200. The medium estimate for buildings and furniture was $9,975,000. No estimates were made on the cost of land. The medium estimate for equipment was $1,665,000. The probable annual cost of operation and maintenance was fixed at $1,970,500, including receipts from student fees. The attention of the survey commission has also been directed to the possibility of establishing a state-wide system of junior colleges. The outstanding features of the plan are that the junior colleges should be supported largely by the state and supervised by the state department of education, but that they should be administered through local school systems. It was shown that by locating 12 of these junior colleges in the chief centers of population, nearly 90 per cent. of the population would be within 15 miles of a junior college.

THE NEW JERSEY COMPOSITE TEST

THE New Jersey composite test was given to the first half of practically all the fifth grades of the state of New Jersey during the week of October 23, 1922, in accordance with a carefully planned administrative program. Commissioner Enright has repeatedly expressed his appreciation of the fine spirit of cooperation among the schoolmen of New Jersey which made this experiment possible. The State Department of Public Instruction began to receive shipments of test results in November and the general and special committees held conferences leading toward the most satisfactory analysis of the results received. The business division of the State Department of Education undertook to do the necessary clerical work in checking and tabulating the returns in accordance with a program developed by the several committees.

It was decided that the experiment was so important and so satisfactorily carried out that nothing less than a thorough analysis of all the material should be made. But inasmuch as this analysis would take at least six months to a year, it was also decided to make a preliminary analysis on a sampling of 3,000 pupils chosen at random from the total of 45,000 children tested to represent the state at large. It was also decided that the percentile method of presenting results combined the greatest number of advantages of the statistical devices discussed. The sampling of 3,000 cases was, therefore, standardized on the percentile basis for the principal test combinations.

To determine the validity of this provisional standardization the business division chose three different samples at random of 1,000 cases each. These booklets were rescored and checked in every detail and separate percentile standardizations made. The comparison of these three standardizations showed such slight differences that the samples were combined into one sample of 3,000 cases, thus found to be fairly representative of the state at large.

When the complete analysis of results for the entire state has been made, it will be possible to make special allowance or analysis on the basis of age, sex, color, nationality and type of school. It is hoped that the total analysis for the state will be completed by the end of the coming summer. The work of checking, coding and punching for an elaborate analysis to be made by the Hollerith system is already well under way.

The report which has been prepared was submitted by Roy L. Shaffer, assistant commissioner of education, Trenton, and may be secured by writing to him. It was approved by the original committee of fourteen, an advisory committee of psychologists and a consulting committee of school administrators.

GROWTH OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

THE growth of public high schools is described as "phenomenal" in Bulletin 1923, No. 12, of the United States Bureau of Education, just issued. In 1900, the bulletin shows only 0.68 per cent. of the total population were enrolled in the public high schools of the country, while in 1920, or twenty years later, 1.76 per cent. were enrolled. In 1900 only 3.3 per cent. of the

children enrolled in the elementary and high school grades were in high school, while 10.2 per cent. were enrolled in high schools in 1920. The bulletin adds that if data for the year 1922 were available they would probably show 12 or 13 per cent. enrolled in high school, since the high school enrollment has increased greatly within the past two years. Of the pupils enrolled in secondary schools, both public and private, the per cent. enrolled in public schools increased from 82.4 per cent in 1900 to 91 per cent. in 1920. The bulletin further says:

The per cent. of increase in enrollment in the public high schools should, however, not be misconstrued to mean that the private high schools have not grown. The increase in enrollment in private high schools has about kept pace with the increase in population. The relative change is not due to an absolute decrease in the status of the private high schools, but to the phenomenal growth of the public high schools.

Even with the increase in enrollment in both public and private high schools, there is still an army of 1,967,651 boys and girls from 14 to 17 years of age, inclusive, who were not in school. If these boys and girls could be brought into school about 65,000 additional classrooms would be necessary, counting 30 to a class; and about 4,000 additional high schools of 500 pupils each would be required.

Just why these boys and girls are not in school may be assigned to several causes; one is that some parents are not economically able to keep their children in school; another cause is that the courses of study are not adapted to the needs and the intelligence of these children. Of course, not all children 14 to 18 years of age will ever attend high school, but that more could attend is only too evident. That a larger percentage than formerly are attending, as is shown by the foregoing figures, is encouraging; and as courses of study are improved by providing for individual differences more fully than they do at present, more girls and boys will remain in high school.

In summing up the important movements that have characterized secondary education in recent years, Mr. W. S. Deffenbaugh, who prepared the report, mentions particularly the reorganization of high schools on the junior-senior plan.

"ROSENWALD" RURAL SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH

S. L. Smith, of Nashville, Tennessee, field agent of "The Julius Rosenwald Fund," which was created to assist in the building of better negro rural schools reported at the Hampton Institute conference of state agents for colored schools throughout the south, that, up to April 30, there had been built 1700 "Rosenwald schools" and forty-nine teachers' homes at a total cost of $6,257,492. Of this amount negroes had contributed $1,600,667 or 25.6 per cent.; white people, $352,199 or 5.6 per cent.; public funds, $3,100,148 or 49.5 per cent.; and Julius Rosenwald, of Chicago, $1,204,478 or 19.3 per cent.

The number of buildings follows: Alabama, 260; Arkansas, 84; Florida, 7; Georgia, 73; Kentucky, 73; Louisiana, 173; Maryland, 40; Mississippi, 213; North Carolina, 287; Oklahoma, 35; South Carolina, 116; Tennessee, 146; Texas, 103; and Virginia, 139.

While 474 Rosenwald schools are one-teacher and 650 are two-teacher schools, there are also the following groups: three-teacher, 275; four-teacher, 165; five-teacher, 56; six-teacher, 55; seven-teacher, 6; eight-teacher, 10; nine-teacher, 2; ten-teacher, 3; and one school each of the eleven, twelve, fourteen and sixteen-teacher types.

The cooperation in fourteen states of white and colored groups, of public and private agencies, in improving negro rural school facilities, is shown in the following schedule of total costs and their distribution:

Alabama—Cost, $471,700; negroes gave $187,072; whites, $25,094; public funds, $137,134; Julius Rosenwald, $122,400.

Arkansas—$271,373; negroes, $29,062; whites, $9,901; public, $171,410; Rosenwald, $61,000.

Florida—$47,288; negroes, $3,970; whites, $2,160; public, $33,258; Rosenwald, $7,900.

Georgia—$236,119; negroes, $84,976; whites, $10,113; public, $91,480; Rosenwald, $49,550.

Kentucky—$329,634; negroes, $42,801; whites, $6,325; public, $234,508; Rosenwald, $46,000.

Louisiana—$525,130; negroes, $176,141; whites, $20,339; public, $210,650; Rosenwald, $118,000.

Maryland—$163,066; negroes, $30,362; whites, $474; public, $104,830; Rosenwald, $27,400.

Mississippi—$943,302; negroes, $338,318; whites, $92,693; public, $328,891; Rosenwald, $183,400.

North Carolina—$1,065,319; negroes, $238,485; whites, $44,636; public, $582,633; Rosenwald, $199,565.

Oklahoma—$189,869; negroes, $7,763; whites, $0.00; public, $154,176; Rosenwald, $27,930.

South Carolina—$627,404; negroes, $148,700; whites, $111,374; public, $264,730; Rosenwald, $102,600.

Tennessee—$571,303; negroes, $135,648; whites, $13,732; public, $322,303; Rosenwald, $99,600.

Texas—$300,722; negroes, $42,860; whites, $2,880; public, $177,549; Rosenwald, $77,433.

Virginia—$515,263; negroes, $134,509; whites, $12,458; public, $286,596; Rosenwald, $81,700.

THE SUPERINTENDENCY OF THE SCHOOLS OF WASHINGTON, D. C.

ON the reelection of Dr. Frank Ballou, superintendent of the schools of Washington, D. C., the president of the Board of Education, Dr. Abram Simon, made the following statement:

The three-year term for which Dr. Ballou was elected as superintendent of the schools of Washington is drawing to a close. A review of this period registers a steady upward growth not only in his grasp of the details and program of education in the District of Columbia, but also in his own expanding influence and reputation as an educator in the United States.

The superintendency of schools in Washington calls for more than teaching technique and administrative ability. It demands a high order of courage, together with statesmanlike qualities.

We of the board herewith register our unbounded appreciation of the services which Dr. Ballou has rendered to our community. We are not unmindful of the fact, and it wins our warm admiration, that Dr. Ballou's abiding faith in the strategic position which Washington occupies as an educational center has not tempted him to leave Washington for other fields of usefulness by offers of larger emolument.

Public school leadership in Washington is comparable in dignity, in difficulty, and in national compass, with the greatest educational positions in the United States, and we do not hesitate to say that the salary offered the superintendent of schools in Washington ought to be a recognition of this incontestable fact. It is all the more to be regretted, therefore, that our board is not in a position to offer the superintendent any increase of salary commensurate with his masterful services, but we can assure him of our great confidence in his educational leadership.

We tender him, therefore, a reelection for a period of three years from the thirtieth of June, 1923, to the thirtieth of June, 1926.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

DR. SAMUEL W. STRATTON, formerly director of the United States Bureau of Standards, will be installed as president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology on June 11. Among the speakers will be Dr. Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University, representing the founders of the institute; Major General George O. Squier, representing the federal government, and Dr. John C. Merriam, president of the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

WILLIAM MATHER LEWIS, for the past two years chief of the educational service of the United States Chamber of Commerce, has been elected president of George Washington University. He will succeed Howard L. Hodgkins, dean of the engineering school, acting president since the resignation of William M. Collier, now ambassador to Chile.

DEAN R. S. SHAW, head of the agricultural department of the Michigan State College of Agriculture, has been appointed by the State Board of Agriculture acting president of the college, following the resignation of Dr. David Friday.

AT the class-day exercises of the University of Chicago in June, the graduating class will present to the university a bronze tablet bearing a bas-relief of President Emeritus Harry Pratt Judson, who retired from the position in February. The class has also decided to award a medal of similar design to one of its own members, the basis of the award to be determined later by the senior executive council.

AT a meeting of the council of the University of Leeds a resolution was passed expressing profound regret at the resignation of the vice-chancellor, Sir Michael Sadler, on his election as master of University College, Oxford, and also expressing the hope that "in the important office which he is about to assume, Sir Michael will find at least equal opportunities of serving the cause of education to which his life has been devoted."

MR. NICHOLAS BAUER, who has been business manager and secretary of the Board of Education and who was for a number of years as-

sistant superintendent of schools of New Orleans, has been elected superintendent of the New Orleans Public Schools, to succeed Superintendent J. M. Gwinn, who, as we have already announced, has been elected superintendent of the schools of San Francisco.

MR. A. W. MERRILL has been elected assistant superintendent of schools at Des Moines, Iowa. Mr. Merrill will have charge of the new school building program and will supervise the junior and senior high schools, night schools and summer schools.

MR. OSCAR S. WOOD, principal of the high school, of St. Joseph, Missouri, has been elected superintendent of schools at Aberdeen, South Dakota.

SUPERINTENDENT H. C. SNYDER, of Stevens Point, Wisconsin, has announced his resignation to take effect July first.

J. STEARNS CUSHING, principal of two Arlington junior high schools, has been elected principal of the new junior high school, erected at a cost of $330,000, which is to be opened in September at South Medford, Massachusetts.

HERBERT F. TAYLOR, superintendent of the schools of Manchester, New Hampshire, has resigned.

MR. J. M. MCDONALD, of Ontario, Oregon, has been elected superintendent of schools at Kemmerer to succeed J. E. Burch.

MCHENRY RHOADS, head of the department of secondary education of the University of Kentucky, has announced his candidacy for the state superintendency of the Kentucky schools.

ELMER GUY CUTSHALL, who received the degree of master of arts from the University of Iowa in 1914, was inaugurated president of West Virginia Wesleyan College, Buckhannon, West Virginia, on June 5.

MISS KATHARINE LUMMUS has accepted appointment to the position of dean in Wells College. She received the doctor's degree in the department of classics from Stanford University and pursued post graduate work also in Johns Hopkins and the American Classical School in Rome. For several years she has been a member of the faculty of Sweet Briar and since 1921 the dean of the college.

IN memory of the late Dr. Charles R. Van Hise, former president of the University of Wisconsin, a large quartzite rock in Abelman was dedicated as "The Van Hise Rock" on June 3 with appropriate ceremonies. Part of the inscription on the tablet marker is as follows: "This rock is pictured in geology textbooks as a type illustrating important principles of structural geology and has been a point of special interest to many investigators in geology visiting this region. President Charles R. Van Hise, of the University of Wisconsin, was one of the first and foremost of these."

THE men's dormitory that is being built by the board of athletic control of Stanford University out of income from the stadium as a gift to the university will be given the name Branner Hall, to commemorate the services to Stanford University and the sympathetic interest in student affairs of the late John Casper Branner, pioneer member of the faculty, first head of the geology department and second president of the university.

AT a recent meeting of the board of curators of the University of Missouri, the name of the biology building which houses the departments of zoology and botany was changed to Lefevre Hall in honor of the late Professor George Lefevre, professor of zoology in the university from 1899 until his recent death.

THE funeral of the late Arthur Gordon Webster at the chapel of the Massachusetts Crematory Society was attended by Dr. Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University, and nearly a hundred professors from Harvard University, the Institute of Technology and Clark University. The pall-bearers were Dr. G. Stanley Hall, president emeritus of Clark University; Dr. Ira N. Hollis, president of Worcester Polytechnic Institute; Dr. William E. Story, former professor of mathematics at Clark and Harry Worcester Smith, all of Worcester; Dr. Michael I. Pupin, of Columbia University; Dr. Philip Kilroy, of Springfield; President S. W. Stratton, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Professors Edwin H. Hall, Charles R. Lanman and George F. Moore, of Harvard University.

MARTIN L. HAYES, head of the department of

vocational education of the A. & M. College of Texas, died on March 28. Mr. Hayes went to the college in 1913, where he established one of the first departments of agricultural education in the south. After the passage of the Smith-Hughes law his department took over the teacher training for agriculture and trades and industries.

DR. JAMES MCBRIDE STERRETT, a widely known Episcopalian clergyman, from 1892 to 1909 professor of philosophy in George Washington University, died by suicide on May 31, at the age of seventy-six years.

HALF a million dollars has been appropriated by the New York State legislature to start work on a new plant industries building for the College of Agriculture at Ithaca. A few years ago the state adopted a program that called for the expenditure of $3,000,000 and the college has been empowered to proceed with a building plan in accordance with this appropriation, though it may not expend more than the amount made available in any one year.

THE residue of the estate of the late George E. Hoadley, of Trinity College, is to be divided equally between Trinity College and the Connecticut Historical Society. Each institution will receive about $200,000.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY has received a gift of $500,000 from Mr. Edward Mallinckrodt, chemical manufacturer of St. Louis, to be used for the erection of a chemical laboratory.

BY the will of Miss Rosetta M. Ulman, the National Farm School, Doylestown, Pennsylvania, has received $45,000 for a new dormitory to replace the one recently destroyed by fire.

AS has been fully reported in the daily press, the explosion of an oil lamp during an entertainment in the frame building of the school house at Camden, South Carolina, caused a disastrous fire which resulted in the death of more than seventy people, among whom almost every family in the town was represented.

HEREAFTER the president of Chicago University need not be a Baptist, according to action taken on May 26 at the annual conference of the Northern Baptist Convention. Three fifths of the trustees must be Baptists, instead of two thirds, as formerly was required. The board of trustees will be increased to twenty-five members. Judge F. W. Freeman of Denver proposed to divorce entirely the University of Chicago from Baptist control and vest full authority and management with the trustees. C. R. Holden, one of the trustees of the university, told the delegates that the board of trustees did not want to have their relationship with the denomination divorced and only asked the change in the number and representation of the board and the policy of selecting a president because at times it has been found difficult to obtain a Baptist qualified to accept the post.

GOVERNOR SMITH. of New York, has signed the Downing bills, discontinuing the loyalty tests for teachers and the licensing and supervision by the state of all schools. In a memorandum the governor said: "I am satisfied the Lusk laws should not remain on the statute books of this state because they are repugnant to the fundamentals of American democracy. Under the laws repealed teachers, in order to exercise their honorable calling, were in effect compelled to hold opinions as to governmental matters deemed by the state officer consistent with loyalty and further, no private school could be maintained in the state unless its teachings were similarly satisfactory to certain officials of the state. Freedom of opinion and freedom of speech were by these laws unduly shackled and an unjust discrimination was made against the members of a great profession. In signing these bills, I firmly believe I am vindicating the principle that within the limits of the penal law every citizen may speak and teach what he believes."

THE Michigan State Board of Agriculture on May 25 accepted the resignation of David Friday, president of Michigan Agricultural College, effective June 1. According to press reports, Dr. Friday tendered the resignation earlier in the day, following a secret meeting of the board at which the members are reported to have decided to ask him to resign because they disagreed with his administration methods. Dr. Friday has accepted a professorship in economics at the New School for Social Research of New York City. He also will engage in editorial work for the *New Republic*. The board

accepted the resignation over the protest of Governor Groesbeck. Dr. Friday said in resigning that in view of the situation which has existed since the reported decision to dismiss him he no longer could act as head of the college. He asserted that the entire feeling against him is "due to politics" and that "the political muddle" would be complicated still further by any effort on his part to remain in office."

On May 19 the coroner's jury making an investigation into the death of Louis Aubere, a Northwestern University student, made the following report: "We, the jury, find that Louis Aubere came to his death on the twenty-seventh day of April, due to external injuries caused through an accident while standing on the running board of a Haynes automobile driven by James Francis Leahy, which collided with a Franklin car driven by Mrs. Arthur J. Winslow. From the evidence shown we, the jury, believe said occurrence to have been an unavoidable accident. Further the jury recommends that steps be taken to widen the corners of the approach to the said bridge."

The grand jury of Cook County reported to the chief justice of the criminal court on May 25: "In your charge to this grand jury your honor directed the jury to make a thorough and complete inquiry into the disappearance of Leighton Mount of Evanston, Illinois, and that if we arrived at a conclusion that death was caused by violence we should so report to the court. We have followed the court's instructions and have carefully considered the evidence presented and are unable to report in that regard." Dr. Walter Dill Scott, president of Northwestern University, said: "Notwithstanding the fact that the grand jury has found no evidence of crime in the Mount case, neither murder, manslaughter, abduction nor concealment of the body after accidental death, the reward of $10,000 offered by Northwestern University still stands. If any new material evidence should be presented Northwestern University will call upon properly qualified public officials to reopen the case."

The daily press reports that sixty per cent. of the students of Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College will not return for the opening of the next school term, according to a statement issued at Stillwater on May 25 by Raymond Etheridge, president of the student senate. Etheridge issued the statement following the visit of several hundred students and Stillwater residents to protest to Governor J. C. Walton against the recent appointment of George Wilson as president of the college. The selection of Wilson, a former state manager of the Oklahoma Farmer-Labor Reconstruction League, caused protests from various sources, including the American Legion, who charged him with having made anti-Legion statements. The governor is said to have cut short the protest meeting and informed his visitors that Wilson had been legally appointed president of the college and warned that if threats of violence were carried out, he would go to Stillwater personally and "tell you when to go to bed and when to get up."

DISCUSSION

RECHRISTENING NORMAL SCHOOLS

We have agricultural colleges, engineering colleges, commercial colleges, dental colleges and barbers' colleges. Why not teachers' colleges?

In many quarters "normal school" persists as the prevailing name of teacher-training institutions. When the poet-philosopher said that a rose by any other name would smell as sweet, he did not give utterance to an absolute truth. Like many other happy pronouncements, his is only a relative truth. There is something in a a name, and the smell and the name become inseparably associated. They are complementary. The name makes its contribution to the smell.

Both the denotation and the connotation of "normal" and of "school" are somewhat inaccurate in their application to the teacher-training institutions. "School" historically more often denotes an institution of secondary or of primary rank. English writers discriminate between school and college. When they say "school and college," they mean what they say. If an institution which is engaged in the work of training teachers is attended by students who are secondary school graduates, why not be exact enough to call it a college? If horse doctors are trained in college, why not teachers? As long as there are teacher-training institutions of secondary rank, there will be sufficient

provocation for prating about low standards in "the profession." The normal schools that are not of secondary rank ought to be rechristened.

During the last five years many have been rechristened. If we simply must have "normal", why not "normal college"? Let the rechristening go on apace.

WALTER W. PARKER
STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE
WARRENSBURG, MISSOURI

QUOTATIONS

EDUCATION FROM THE INSIDE

PRINCETON has adopted a new plan for the choice of courses and has laid down new requirements for the A.B. degree. The gist of the scheme seems to be that independent study evidenced by examination will take the place of a part of the regular requirements of work in courses. Princeton has been requiring five courses a term, but will hereafter require only four. Two comprehensive examinations, one at the end of the junior year and one at the end of the senior year, will test the student's achievement in his major field, covering both his course work and his independent study. The plan is designed to encourage self-education.

The trend of change in college regulations is steadily toward a reduction of courses in favor of individual study under guidance, and the substitution of success in general examinations for passing marks in courses. The Princeton plan is in accord with the Harvard plan of tutorial instruction (Princeton was before Harvard in that), general examinations and concentration of studies. Everywhere the hope is that perfunctory meeting of a quantitative requirement (so many C's out of a fixed total) may give way to genuine achievement as the basis for awarding degrees. Regulations are so framed that the student who has no interest in his work finds it increasingly difficult to meet the requirements. The mere mechanism of the scheme challenges the student to educate himself from the inside.

No one can doubt the advantage of all this. Without much curtailment of freedom in the choice of studies, the student is tempted by the regulations to apply himself constructively to the building up of his knowledge in a special field. Unless he does so in at least respectable measure he can not get his degree. But we wonder if it is not true that what remains to be done at Harvard (and probably at other universities also) is to provide greater freedom in every way for those who need no temptation and no challenge—the "self-starters." The Princeton plan, like the one at Harvard, is still cautious, still aims at the student who needs to be kept in line. Why not allow a student, who has proved his ability and knows his own mind, to carve out his own field of specialization (pre-vocational if need be) and give him such release from courses as will enable him to achieve a result of high order in that part of his education which is ordered and conducted most truly and most fully from within? The next step would seem to be the selection, for such favor, of those students who deserve it and will use it to good effect. Now that we can get some measure of intelligence, in addition to the usual evidences of achievement, there should be no great difficulty in letting genuine purpose in a good student have its way.—*Harvard Alumni Bulletin.*

THE SITUATION AT CLARK UNIVERSITY

THERE were printed in the *Boston Evening Transcript* on May 31 statements concerning the situation at Clark University by Dr. Edwin G. Boring, associate professor of psychology at Harvard University; Dr. Frank H. Hankins, professor of sociology at Smith College; Dr. Kimball Young, assistant professor of psychology, leaving Clark University to return to the University of Oregon; Dr. Harry E. Barnes, professor of history, leaving Clark University to go to Smith; Dr. Carroll C. Pratt, instructor in psychology at Harvard University. Professor Boring writes:

I accepted the position of professor of experimental psychology and head of the Psychological Laboratory at Clark University for a term of three years in 1919. In accepting this position my attention was called by President Hall to the fact that every appointment, even to a full chair, must initially be temporary under a by-law of the trustees, and that at the expiration of the term permanent reappointment under the same by-law would be made if my work had been satisfactory. In the spring of 1921 President Atwood, in the face of a call to

another institution, assured me that my work had been satisfactory, but refused at that time to make the appointment permanent. I gathered, however, from my conversation with him, that he had some doubts as to the desirability of my continuing with the university. In the spring of 1922, when negotiations for my transfer to Harvard University were pending, President Atwood again assured me of the satisfactoriness of my work and offered to recommend me for reappointment for a year only. I stated that I thought I had a contractual right, in view of the satisfactoriness of my work, for permanent appointment, and I stated this case later to him in writing for transmission to the board of trustees. The day before the meeting of the board of trustees, the president heard a rumor that I had agreed to go to Harvard, although as a matter of fact the appointment at Harvard was not made until a month later. He therefore did not present my letter to the board of trustees, nor take up the matter of my reappointment, nor make any appropriations for my staff and the maintenance of my laboratory. Fortunately the appointment at Harvard was made later and I was enabled to leave without personal embarrassment. In connection with my leaving, the press printed a statement, which it ascribed to the president, to the effect that I had not resigned, but had simply failed of reappointment. This statement was interpreted in the headlines and by many readers as meaning that I was not wanted at Clark.

I was anxious to leave Clark for the reason that it seemed to me at that time, as it seems to me now, that the policy of the university was intended to result in the disestablishment of the university, in so far as the university exists in the prosecution of graduate work and research of a high standard in a number of allied departments. The press quoted the president at this time as saying that it was "absolutely false," that Clark was departing from its tradition of research, but I think that subsequent events at that institution have justified my original judgment, and shown that the principal interest of the new Graduate School of Geography, which has now become almost the only graduate department, is not in the academic ideals set by the tradition of Clark University.

The other four former members of the faculty of Clark University also write in criticism of the administration and its failure to maintain high university standards. In the *Boston Herald* for June 1, the president of Clark University, Dr. Walter W. Atwood, is reported to have said in reply:

These professors have a perfect right to their opinions, but some of them are laboring under a delusion or else speaking that which is not true. For instance, not a single promise has been made by me to any professor at the college which has not been kept.

College spirit at Clark would be classified as "good" now were it not for a few discontented professors who spread their feeling among the students. And students, you know, sympathize with the professors rather than with the president. The professors are closer to the students. I believe the boys have been more or less misled by certain professors and I also believe that some of the professors have made statements attacking the policy of the present Clark administration through misunderstanding.

Next year I think there will be no faculty members here who are not loyal to the administration. They may be critical, but we will not have to contend with such an antagonistic group as we have had in the past.

It is true that the work of some courses has been reduced. For instance, in psychology we have reduced our staff from four to two men. In the history of the university other subjects have been from time to time placed on an inactive list.

Our main trouble here is lack of funds. Most colleges and universities have gone to their alumni and have received liberal endowments which have been used to increase salaries and generally raise the standard of college life. But not Clark. Our alumni are now at work trying to raise funds for an athletic field.

Clark's finances have been more or less fixed. And now the crisis comes and we find it impossible to maintain old standards in the university in competition with those of other and larger colleges with greater financial resources.

And so we have been forced to discontinue the departments of biology and mathematics in the university and have reduced the staffs in psychology and sociology.

There has been absolutely no curtailment in the college. On the contrary the college has been strengthened. Salaries of most members of the faculty have been increased from twenty to fifty per cent., and we're getting along nicely.

The Worcester correspondent of the *Herald* adds:

Although Dr. Atwood made no definite charges, he strongly intimated that the controversy which

arose at Clark when the president turned out the lights when Professor Scott Nearing was delivering a radical address was at the bottom of the whole affair. Since that time, according to the president, there has been much feeling and bitterness on the part of some factions among the faculty and the student body.

He also denied that he was trying to starve other departments in order to nourish his geographical department and asserted that such insinuations were absolutely false. It was also learned on good authority that Dr. Atwood believed much of the material used by Upton Sinclair in his attack on the president as a "representative of the capitalistic class who would curtail free speech" was supplied by socialistic members of the Clark faculty.

A manifesto which had the support of approximately seventy-five per cent. of the full professors at Clark, addressed to the president and the board of trustees, was prepared early in 1922. It was not presented because, before action could be completed, there arose the discussion of the matter of freedom of speech over the Nearing episode which, it was feared, might bring accusations of radicalism upon signers of the document. It reads in part as follows:

1. We request that the board of trustees take immediate steps to establish machinery whereby intimate consultation between the board and the faculty can occur in major matters of academic policy and in which the initiative can be invoked by the faculty as well as by the board. The single avenue of approach prevents, even in matters of the utmost importance, the operation of any mechanism of decision that approximates discussion.

2. We request that the president or the board make a specific and positive statement of the academic policy and intentions of the present administration. We beg to point out that no definite statement of the sort desired can be made unless it be made with reference to the total annual income of the university. No intention can become effective unless it can receive the necessary financial support.

3. We request that the president or the board make a specific and positive statement with respect to the intentions of the administration toward increases in the salaries of the men primarily engaged in undergraduate instruction, the members of the former faculty of "Clark College." The board will recall that in the spring of 1920 the faculty of Clark College took action looking toward a remedying of its salary situation by voluntarily decreasing its staff without decreasing the total amount of instruction and by recommending an increase of tuition. These recommendations, made for the purpose of increasing salaries, were accepted by the trustees, but the intent of the recommendations has never been fulfilled. The failure of the administration to act throughout two years in this matter leaves the faculty in doubt as to its intentions in this specific regard and also in regard to the support of undergraduate instruction in general.

4. We request that the board or the president make specific statements with respect to the intentions of the administration toward graduate instruction and research. We note that graduate instruction in biology and mathematics has been allowed to lapse, that the long deferred relief of the department of chemistry by expansion of its laboratory facilities has yet to be realized, that the departments of political and social science and of history and international relations, although graduate departments, are prevented from effective graduate work of high standards because of the lack of personnel that is a heritage from their previous half-and-half status within the old "college" and "university," and that all graduate departments by reason of this state of affairs, are concerned about the maintenance of their personnel and facilities for graduate work and are thereby hindered in their initiation of far-seeing policies which require security of status for their completion.

We therefore request in the first place that the board or the president state in general the policy of the administration with respect to graduate instruction and research in general and that it give some indication of the extent to which it is prepared to go in support of productive scholarship by the university.

We beg to point out, although many difficult problems are raised in the answers to these questions, that the problems are all of long standing and may reasonably be expected to receive the attention of the board and the president before the problems of any more recently established department are taken up by the administration.

5. We beg to point out that a most unusual situation is created by reason of the fact that the head of the department of geography who is charged with the responsibility of the promotion and development of his department, is also the president of the university, who is charged with the judication of the conflicting interests of the several departments. We believe that it is impossible for these two functions to be executed simultaneously by a single individual without prejudice of the one to the other. The psychological incompatibility here referred to has long been rec-

ognized in courts of law. We request, therefore, that the board confer with representatives of the faculty for the purpose of effecting some means whereby both the department of geography and the university can benefit by a separation of function.

In making these requests we are convinced of the gravity of the situations with which they deal. We feel that immediate action is necessary in order that the work of the university may continue to be effective and that the more able men on the faculty may be retained by the university. We feel that much in the way of amelioration can be accomplished by a concrete and definite statement of policy by the board or the president. We beg that this statement be made as promptly as possible and in writing to the faculty of the university.

A CODE OF ETHICS FOR TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION

BEFORE undertaking the preparation of this code of ethics for teachers, the writer communicated with the state teachers' associations of the different states, requesting a copy of the code, if any, which had been adopted by each association. In reply a number of letters were received expressing a keen interest in the preparation of such a code and a desire to receive for examination a copy when ready for distribution. But few actual codes accompanied the letters, the actual number being four, as follows: that of the New Jersey State Teachers' Association (1913), that of the New Hampshire State Teachers' Association (1915), that of the Oregon State Teachers' Association (1916), and that of the Mississippi State Teachers' Association (1917). In addition to this material, he had in his possession the Rotary Code of Ethics for Business Men, the Code of Ethics of the Levana Teachers' Club of Worcester, the report on a Professional Code of Ethics for Teachers by George M. Forbes to the New York State Teachers' Association (1914), and the volume issued in May, 1922, by the American Academy of Political and Social Science, which is devoted to the Ethics of the Professions and Business.

Since the number of ethical codes for teachers was apparently so small and since some of these were extremely brief, while most of them were not at all comprehensive, it seemed all the more desirable to formulate a code which would be more detailed and more systematically organized than most of the codes were. With this aim in view, the author has worked out the code which is given below. In it he has taken the liberty of using some ideas contained in the above codes. In certain cases he has employed a similar phraseology; in others he has entirely recast them. To this material he has added much new matter and all has been edited in accordance with the plan of organization followed.

For the assistance afforded by these different codes, he desires to acknowledge his indebtedness. He would also express his appreciation of the cooperation and helpful criticisms of two members of the Worcester State Normal School faculty: Miss M. Harriette Bishop, chief supervisor of practice teaching, and Dr. Lawrence A. Averill, professor of psychology, as well as those of Mr. Frank W. Wright, director of the division of elementary and secondary education and normal schools in Massachusetts, and of Mr. Arthur C. Boyden, principal of the State Normal School at Bridgewater, Massachusetts.

WILLLIAM B. ASPINWALL
PRINCIPAL, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS

A CODE OF ETHICS FOR TEACHERS

I. PREAMBLE

1. *Membership in the profession:* All persons who have been properly authorized to teach in the schools, both public and private, constitute the membership in the profession of teaching.

2. *Ethical obligations:* These persons, by reason of the relations which they hold to the community and to each other, assume important ethical obligations.

3. *Professional service:* The performance of acceptable professional service demands that these obligations shall be so instilled in the professional consciousness that they will determine the spirit of all professional conduct.

4. *Moral character:* The recognition of these obligations and the consciousness of moral responsibility which they create set up a standard of high moral character as the fundamental qualification of the teacher.

5. *Code of ethics:* The code of ethics, therefore, essential for teachers is the organized statement of the rules and practices which grow naturally out of their professional relationships and which govern their professional acts.

II. ETHICAL PRINCIPALS UNDERLYING THE PROFESSION

1. *Preparation:* For the full and satisfactory performance of the duties of teaching, the profession requires as a moral obligation a high standard of preparation in scholarship, training and skill.

2. *Personality:* The personal qualities of the teacher are the most influential factors in promoting the development of the child's mind and character.

3. *Ideal of service:* The dominating purpose of the profession is service to society, a result to be gained through greater popular intelligence and high moral character.

III. THE RELATIONS OF TEACHERS TO THE PROFESSION

1. *Standard of conduct:* Because of the nature of their work and of their relations to the intellectual, moral and social life of the community, teachers should at all times have a single standard of conduct, governed by the highest principles of personal morality, courage and justice.

2. *Honor of the profession:* It should be the aim of teachers to do all that is possible by example and precept, by high scholarship and efficient service, to uphold the dignity and honor of the profession. They should not speak slightingly or disparagingly of it nor countenance in any way unjust popular prejudices against it.

3. *Unity of spirit:* Actuated by common purposes and sharing common interests and ideals, teachers should uniformly and loyally contribute to the establishment and maintenance of a strong solidarity of spirit.

4. *Defense against dishonor:* Both by means of a strong public opinion in the membership of the profession and by open, courageous personal action, teachers should defend their profession from every form of corruption and dishonorable conduct. They should not hesitate to exercise the utmost diligence in eliminating all persons whose conduct at any time becomes a reproach to the profession.

5. *Confidence of associates:* Teachers should so govern their public and private actions that they will enjoy the confidence and esteem of their associates: an honor than which no greater can come to a member of the teaching profession.

6. *Cooperation:* In order that the profession may realize its highest ideals and be of the greatest usefulness to society, teachers should give loyal and cordial cooperation to all efforts and movements that aim to increase the quality and efficiency of its work.

7. *Faithfulness:* Teachers owe it to their own self-respect, to the cause of public education, to the community which they serve and to those charged with administrative responsibility to attend faithfully to all duties assigned to them and at all times to be able to show good cause for failure to do so.

8. *Duties and personal influence:* Teachers should recognize that in addition to and beyond the duties covered by salary or stated formally in the contract, a large part of their responsibility lies in their personal influence for the best things in life and for the social service which they are to render to their communities through constructive cooperation in every effort for social betterment.

9. *Professional attitude:* The attitude of teachers toward their work should be frankly professional, never solely commercial, and should be characterized by an open-mindedness toward educational theories and practices, a spirit of study for personal growth and increased effectiveness in service, a readiness to put the public good before personal gain and a consistent regard for the ethics of the profession.

10. *Conferences and meetings:* Teachers should attend and support the conferences and professional meetings of their own group and as regularly as possible those of the county, state and national organizations of teachers. By participating in this way in the discussions of current educational problems and in the exchange of ideas, methods and devices that have proved valuable, they may stimulate their own professional growth and at the same time build up the good name of the profession.

11. *Educational magazines:* In order to keep in touch with current educational thought and with development and progress of educational practice, teachers should subscribe to one or more educational magazines, and, as often as possible, should write for publication in them articles on educational subjects or procedure which they have worked out successfully. Both of these habits mark the progressive teacher and strengthen the profession.

12. *Respect for the profession:* Teachers should engage in those avocations or pursuits only which will keep the profession in highest respect; they should enter the profession with no intention of using it as a stepping-stone to any other profession; and should encourage only those to enter it who, by reason of genuine personal and educational worth, professional zeal and desire for honest service, are fitted for it and will uphold its standards.

13. *Sacredness of contract:* Both the personal reputation of teachers and the good name of the profession demand that teachers should regard

their contracts as sacred obligations, never to be broken or regarded lightly, to be terminated before expiration only for the gravest cause and then only after such notice as may be acceptable to both parties to them. On the other hand, it is against the best interests of the schools to stand in the way of a teacher's advancement by arbitrary insistence upon the terms of a needlessly rigid contract when the place can be satisfactorily filled.

14. *Civic obligations:* The close professional relationship of their work to civic and social welfare makes it incumbent on teachers to acknowledge the duties and obligations of citizenship and to discharge them honestly and sincerely.

IV. THE RELATIONS OF TEACHERS TO PUPILS AND PARENTS

1. *Education of the children:* The highest obligation of teachers is due to the pupils under their professional care, in order that they may realize the greatest educational development of their capacities which is possible under the circumstances.

2. *Faith in human nature:* To be able to perform the most valuable service for their pupils, teachers should cultivate a strong faith in their individual capabilities, ever striving to encourage them to high endeavors.

3. *Sympathy:* The attitude of teachers toward their pupils should be frankly and sincerely sympathetic, having due respect for their individualities.

4. *Fairness and justice:* In all judgments and treatment of their pupils, teachers should maintain a position of uniform fairness and impartial justice.

5. *Honesty:* The moral training of the pupils and the effectiveness of the teachers' influence demand of teachers a steadfast honesty without reservation or ulterior motive, in thought, word and behavior.

6. *Example:* Realizing that social, intellectual, spiritual and moral values, attitudes and ideals are inculcated most easily by personal example, teachers should aim to represent the best standards of character, refinement, culture and dignity.

7. *Health of the pupils:* Inasmuch as the school has a definite responsibility for the health of the pupils, teachers by adequate preparation and by taking proper precautions should assume their due share in maintaining it.

8. *Cooperation:* Standing, as they do, in relation to their pupils *in loco parentis*, teachers should maintain cooperative relations with parents and should meet criticism from them with patience, courtesy and open-mindedness.

9. *Respect for confidential matters:* Teachers should refrain from discussing the physical, mental, moral or financial limitations of pupils in any way that may embarrass the pupils or parents unnecessarily. Information concerning the home conditions of the pupils should be held in confidence.

10. *Parents welcome in school:* Teachers should make parents understand that they are welcome at the school at all times as visitors, and that opportunity for sympathetic discussion of the school work will be granted at the school whenever desired.

11. *Reports of work:* Teachers should aim to keep parents fully informed of the progress and standing of their children; and in their communications to them should exercise the utmost candor and courtesy.

V. THE RELATIONS OF TEACHERS TO ONE ANOTHER

1. *Teachers as fellow-craftsmen:* Teachers owe to each other the fullest confidence and cooperation, mutual support and deferential treatment in upholding the dignity and honor of the profession of which they are severally and individually members.

2. *Safeguarding reputation:* It is the duty of teachers to do all in their power to safeguard the reputations of one another in all relations with their respective communities and thus exert the positive constructive and helpful influence of the profession at large.

3. *Sharing constructive results:* Teachers should make available to all members of the profession who may desire to secure them whatever ideas, methods, plans and devices may have been successfully worked out by individual teachers or groups of teachers.

4. *Respecting rights:* Teachers should respect and hold as inviolable all rights, privileges and amenities which justly belong to teachers.

5. *Withholding information:* Teachers should refrain from making public, except in such manner as provided by law, all harmful information and opinions as to the personal qualities or professional attainments of teachers so long as the teachers concerned are under contract or tenure.

6. *Criticism and commendation:* Teachers should recognize and welcome the inspiration and the helpfulness that can come to teachers generally through frank constructive criticism and honest whole-hearted and judicious commendation; they should at the same time refrain from adverse criticism of fellow-teachers or of fellow-candidates for a position or of their predecessors or of the teachers of previous grades.

7. *Business relations:* Teachers owe to each other the courtesy of frank, open dealing in all business relations.

8. *Consideration for successor:* On retiring from positions teachers should leave on file such records and reports as may be useful for the guidance of their successors.

VI. THE RELATIONS OF TEACHERS TO SUPERVISING OFFICIALS, SCHOOL COMMITTEES AND OTHER AUTHORITIES

1. *Confidence and cooperation:* Mutual confidence, cooperation, loyalty and sincerity should characterize all relations between supervisory officials and teachers. Each should maintain a justifiable pride in the work of the other, and should feel that success for the one is not possible, in the fullest sense without the corresponding success of the other.

2. *Faithful performance of duty:* Teachers owe it to their administrative superiors, as well as to themselves, to fulfill the obligations of their contracts, to perform faithfully all duties assigned to them, to keep a correct register and to file promptly with the proper officer all reports, answers to inquiries and such other matters as may be required by the local, county or state educational departments.

3. *Maintain good name of officials:* It is the duty of teachers to aid in every honorable way in establishing and in maintaining the dignity, good name and usefulness of supervisory and administrative officials. These officials are, in turn, under solemn obligation to recognize and to respect a reciprocal duty toward the teachers.

4. *Public criticism:* So long as an official relationship exists, teachers are not justified in publicly expressing an adverse opinion of a school official no matter what the cause. They are, moreover, entitled to the same professional consideration and courtesy from school officials.

5. *Criticism a stimulus:* Teachers should receive the frank, courteous, contructive criticism of officials as a positive stimulus to better work, being assured that it is to be held as private and absolutely confidential.

6. *Appeals to superiors:* Teachers should regard their principals or immediate supervisors as the proper medium of communication between themselves and superior officials, and should not seek the influence of or make direct appeals to the latter without the full knowledge and consent of their immediate superiors.

7. *Appointments on merit:* Teachers should be unanimous in insisting upon the appointment of teachers solely on merit.

8. *Cause of dismissal or non-election:* Teachers should have in ample time to seek a position elsewhere the courtesy of a frank statement of the cause in case of dismissal or non-election.

VII. THE RELATIONS OF TEACHERS TO THE PUBLIC

1. *Service:* As servants of the people, teachers should strive loyally and unselfishly to render the best service possible and to be known as active factors in the community, whose influence may be counted in every movement for moral, educational and civic betterment.

2. *Citizenship:* As members of the community, teachers should identify themselves as citizens with the life and interests of the places in which they live, acknowledging and faithfully discharging all the duties and obligations incumbent upon them.

3. *Community standards:* Although not forfeiting their rights to personal, social, political and other beliefs, teachers should willingly, and, if necessary, at personal sacrifice, conform to the standards of conduct which are approved in the communities which they serve and should refrain from all forms of behavior and recreation not regarded with favor.

4. *Educational opportunities:* In the spirit of cooperation and service, teachers should be glad to place whatever educational opportunities the community can afford within reach of the humblest citizens.

5. *Non-partisanship:* While entitled to entire liberty of conscience and opinion, teachers should consistently refrain from becoming partisans upon issues which divide the community.

6. *Detrimental partisan influence:* If the rights of the children are being denied and if the schools are being subordinated to local and partisan politics or exploited for personal gain, teachers should have the right to apprise the public of the facts and through legitimate channels to seek to remedy the evils.

7. *Belief in education:* Believing in the value and necessity of education and having pride in their profession, teachers should not hesitate to talk education in the community and to make known their enthusiasm for it.

8. *Compensation:* While striving to render the most efficient service, teachers should expect and receive a compensation sufficient to enable them to live in a manner befitting their position in society, to permit of professional improvement and to enable them to provide for dependents and for old age.

VIII. THE RELATIONS OF TEACHERS TO PERSONS INTERESTED COMMERCIALLY

1. *Conservative attitude:* In all relations with representatives of school book publishers, supply houses and others commercially interested in the schools, teachers should take an attitude of dignity, discretion and reserve.

2. *Sample text-books:* Teachers should discourage the accepting or soliciting of sample books when there is no serious or immediate prospect of change or adoption, or in departments of study outside of that which they may be teaching.

3. *Teachers' agencies:* Teachers should expect, demand and receive through the medium of teachers' agencies a professional service which is founded upon an ethical code of a standard fully as high as that of the teaching profession and which is performed in accordance with the best professional and business methods. They should condemn and use their influence, individually and through organized action, to discourage all practices employed by any such bureau which do not conform to these standards and which can not be countenanced by teachers, superintendents or boards of education.

IX. UNPROFESSIONAL PRACTICES

1. It is unprofessional for a teacher, in seeking a position, to employ any form of bidding or underbidding, or to use any but strictly fair and honorable means. No adverse criticisms should be made of fellow-candidates, even though opportunities may be presented; but rather there should be commendation and acknowledgement of a rival's good qualities.

2. It is unprofessional to apply for a position not yet vacant, or to use any influence whatever whereby the incumbent may be handicapped or a vacancy created. It is not, however, improper or unethical for teachers to direct letters of inquiry to educational authorities concerning probable vacancies in schools or school systems.

3. It is unprofessional to strive to secure a position by using the influence of politicians, publishing or supply houses, or such other agencies, or to seek advancement by means of social, political, religious or denominational prejudices.

4. It is unprofessional to accept the offer of a position without at the same time withdrawing all applications for other positions.

5. It is unprofessional to seek the offer of a position elsewhere for the sole purpose of using it as a means of securing an increase of salary in one's present position.

6. It is unprofessional to ask indiscriminately for testimonials and recommendations. Teachers should limit their requests to those who, in their belief, can conscientiously and willingly testify to their qualifications and attainments. On the other hand, persons in authority would perform a greater professional service to teachers by writing personal letters or by being ever ready to write personal letters for efficient teachers, in lieu of formal recommendations.

7. While it is proper for teachers to seek preferment and promotion by legitimate means, it is unprofessional to strive to establish reputation or to secure advancement by innuendo, by exploitation, by personally inspired complimentary press notices or by advertisements.

8. It is unprofessional to violate confidential correspondence or conversation among teachers and school officers, or to betray any confidence concerning the school, the teachers and the pupils, or to discuss outside or to gossip about the daily business of the school, or to make public any information which should come from other sources.

9. It is unprofessional to discuss the weaknesses and the limitations of pupils in any way, such as to embarrass either the pupils or the parents unnecessarily.

10. It is unprofessional to criticize unfavorably one's predecessor or co-worker, either in or out of school, unless to the proper official, and then only for the purpose of promoting the professional service.

11. It is unprofessional to promote the interests of salesmen, to act as agent for any commercial house, to receive a commission or anything else of value, for the sale of books or supplies in the selection of which one exercises official decision.

X. THE OBLIGATION OF THE CODE OF ETHICS

1. *Its object:* that teachers may recognize the obligation of maintaining the quality of service of the profession on the highest ethical and professional plane and to prevent its common purpose being frustrated through the undue influence of the motive of pecuniary gain upon the necessities or cupidity of the individual.

2. *Its significance:* that teachers by cooperating in promoting the highest ethical and professional ideals, in quickening the sympathies and increasing the zeal, pride and loyalty of every member of the profession, in creating a deeper public respect for those engaged in teaching and in providing a basis for adjustment of difficult questions of professional conduct, may fulfill as completely as possible the primary service for which the profession stands, while at the same time securing the legitimate economic interest of its members.

3. *Its obligation:* that teachers, realizing that the public welfare is directly affected by the skill, knowledge, creative ability and ideals of all may regard their ethical code as the means by which they, both individually and as a professional group, may be socially victorious over selfish interest, and with unity of purpose may put the honor of their calling above the reach of their own weaknesses.